

# The Modern Language Journal

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# THE Modern Language Journal

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## NATIONAL ASPECTS OF MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING IN THE PRESENT EMERGENCY<sup>1</sup>

In a salutation, that it was my privilege as consulting editor of *Hispania* to address to the newly formed American Association of Teachers of Spanish, I took occasion to point out some of the opportunities and responsibilities of the teacher of Spanish in the present national crisis and with your permission I shall quote a passage therefrom as a kind of opening text for the topic I am to try to bring before you:

"We must be on our guard against losing judgment under the stress of this new demand for the language of our predilection. We ought never to descend to the position of mere propagandists and act as though we considered our own language specialty to be the only subject that should occupy the student's attention. A concrete example will show best what I mean. During the registration period at our University, one of the advisers, a member of the department to which I belong, was being consulted by a student who wished to take a language in our department, without continuing German of which she had had only three semesters. The adviser in question declined to approve such a program. He informed the student that he would approve of her taking up the study of the Romance language in question provided she continued her German for a fourth semester, or that he would approve her taking that fourth semester of German at once and postponing the beginning of the study of the Romance language in question until a later semester. The adviser was careful to explain to the student that the reason for insisting upon a fourth semester of German was the belief of the faculty that less than two years of a given language

<sup>1</sup>A paper read at the meeting of the Association of Modern Language Teachers of the Central West and South, held in Chicago, May 4, 1918.

is not sufficient to give the student a permanent hold on that language and that to permit her to stop her German at that point would be tantamount to throwing away the three semesters of work already done. I thoroughly approve of the attitude of the afore-said adviser and commend the practice to all language teachers whenever similar problems arise. It is particularly desirable that our Hispanists shall not lose their sense of perspective by reason of the present enthusiasm for Spanish, since we are all of us, I take it, teachers of students rather than teachers of subjects."

This bit of advice seems to me equally appropriate for all our language teachers and especially, under the present circumstances, for our teachers of Modern Languages.

As a result of the entrance of the United States into the world war there has been a very largely increased interest in French and in Spanish and there has been a wide-spread clamor for the elimination of German. The situation is fraught with danger from many points of view and we shall need some very clear thinking if we are to steer our course aright and avoid doing ourselves serious harm. The man, or group of men, who tries to make capital of the present enthusiasm for French or for Spanish, regardless of all other considerations, is very likely to discredit his subject in the long run. On the other hand, the very natural desire to do the enemy all the harm one can in the interests of winning the war may lead to a short-sighted policy which will do us more harm than it will do the enemy.

Let us analyze for a few moments the situation as we find it. In the earlier days of our history there was a time when Italian was the vogue and it would not be difficult to show that the defenders of Italian made a very good case for the supreme cultural advantage of Italian as against all other languages of modern Europe. During this vogue there were among us such men as the distinguished Italian author, Lorenzo Da Ponte, librettist of Mozart's *Figaro* and *Don Giovanni*, a professor of Italian literature at Columbia University. Along about the middle of the century, subsequent to the Mexican war (whether as a result thereof or not, I do not know) there was a Spanish vogue. It is true that previous to this date Ticknor had been professor of French, Spanish, and Belles Lettres at Harvard, but the real Spanish vogue began about the period indicated and was represented by such men as Longfellow



and Lowell, the successors of Ticknor at Harvard, and Ticknor's own *History of Spanish Literature* which first appeared in 1849 after his return from a long residence in Europe. The movement was also represented by the presence of Mariano Velázquez de la Cadena, as professor of the Spanish Language and Literature at Columbia University, and by the publication in 1852 of his dictionary of the Spanish and English languages, a dictionary which had the unique distinction of being for one-half century the standard by which the Spanish-speaking people learned English and the English-speaking people learned Spanish. At that time it would have been easy to find an argument for the supreme cultural value of Spanish as against the other languages of Europe. From a scholarly point of view the vogue of German began when Charles Anthon, professor of the Greek and Latin languages in Columbia college introduced to the English-speaking classical world the works of German scholarship dealing with the Classics. Of course, no one has ever seriously challenged the world-wide importance of French, either from the cultural or the diplomatic point of view. The recent struggle of both French and German for more widespread recognition in the curricula of both high schools and colleges is too familiar to all of you to need specific treatment at the present moment, but all of you realize that in that struggle Spanish and Italian were entirely lost from sight and you know that for various reasons German became a more widely taught subject than French.

Even as recently as my arrival at the University of Illinois, nine years ago, French was taught in very few of the high schools of this state. In the high school in New Jersey, in which I made my preparatory studies in the years 1887-91, no French was taught and there was a full four year course in German; and it should be noticed that at that same period almost none of our leading colleges or universities was accepting German for entrance.

A few years ago there was practically no high school in the State of Wisconsin wherein a student could get a course of French, whereas nearly all of those high schools offered more or less lengthy courses of German. Aside entirely from present war conditions I can assure you as a result of my intimate association with the teachers of this state through our annual High School Conference, that the teachers of French and Spanish have had until recently a distinctly up-hill pull to get recognition for their subjects and I can

also assure you that however slowly, they were none the less surely securing their place in the sun, by the peaceful method of persistently calling attention to the positive value of their subjects without any attempt at belittling the value of German. It is true that during this whole period these teachers have felt that German had secured a very much greater proportion of recognition than was its due; but, as I said before, I do not recall a single instance of an attempt to advance the interest of French or Spanish by belittling the value of German.

Under present conditions the problem is even more delicate than it would be in peace times. Recently I had a discussion with a teacher of German, who is a man whom I esteem very highly and who is an American of non-Germanic descent. I confess I was somewhat surprised at the attitude which he took towards Spanish and its cultural, as well as its more practical, value. Since then I have made it my business to discuss the topic with several others. One of the results of these general discussions I wish to place before you. As a *sine qua non* for discussing the relative cultural merits of several languages, it seems to me that we must demand a rather wide acquaintance with each of the languages and literatures that are under discussion. To be concrete, a professor of Spanish who wishes to dispute concerning the relative merits of German and Spanish must be not only a specialist in Spanish but well read in German and well acquainted with German history and culture and with the Germans on their native heath. Similarly a professor of French who wishes to discuss the relative merits of French and German, or French and Spanish should be not only a specialist in French but well equipped in the manner indicated with the language, literature and culture of the country or countries with which he wishes to compare his specialty. Obviously a professor of German who wishes to compare the value of his subject with that of French or Spanish can hardly expect to be listened to, if he shall not similarly be well informed concerning the language, literature, and culture of the people with whom he wishes to compare the language, literature, and culture of his specialty. Let me be more specific. Two friends of mine have the following qualifications: A. is a professor of German. He is a full blooded American of a 150 years standing and of British descent. He was trained in the ancient humanities and in Anglo Saxon, and historical English

grammar before devoting himself to Germanics. He has studied in Germany, is widely read in French literature and history and has visited France. B. is a professor of Romanic languages. He, too, is a full blooded American of a 150 years standing and of British descent. He was similarly trained in the ancient humanities and in Anglo Saxon and historical English grammar before devoting himself to Romanics. In addition to long residence in two of the Romanic countries, whose language he teaches, he has studied at two German universities for a semester each and has traveled widely throughout Germany and is familiar with its culture, its history and its literature. These two men are in a position to discuss the relative merits of French and German. Only one of them is in a position to discuss the relative merits of Spanish and German. We should save ourselves a vast deal of useless reading and discussion if none but those who are properly equipped for the discussion, as herein outlined, would enter the field.

It does not seem to me, however, that the discussion as to the relative merits of these languages is at all to the point. If we are going to maintain our relations with the world at large, as we have finally come to see them as a result of this world struggle, the American who expects to be a leader must be amply equipped with all three of these modern languages and this Association does not need to have the present speaker go into details to set forth the specific advantages of each. As educators, we should strive to have our pupils equipped adequately with all of them and the sequence in which they should be attempted should be determined by pedagogical and scientific reasons rather than by whim. For years I have maintained that the chaos that exists throughout this country in the matter of the order in which our foreign languages are begun and the length of time that each is continued is subversive of all true discipline and progress. As chairman of a committee on the Coordination of Languages Study for the High Schools of the state of Illinois, my one object is to strive to bring order out of chaos and have our High School Conference vote in favor of some single and specific order of undertaking our various languages together with a definite statement that no language once begun shall be dropped in favor of another and so on; to the end that we may have absolute homogeneity in every language class in the High Schools of our state.

But you know as well as I that in this democratic country of ours, the local School Board is the court of last appeal and that the Board is swayed by the popular opinion of the locality. Up to the present, therefore, our language instruction has suffered from two facts: first, that we educators have not been able to make up our minds as to some definite sequence that we are willing to adopt, and second, that the School Boards have been willing that the uninformed whim of the public should control in the matter of choosing what languages should be taken, the sequence in which they should be taken and the length of time that should be devoted to each.

As stated a moment ago, from the point of view of pedagogy and science we educators ought to have in our hands the decision in these matters, as educators abroad have had them in their hands. No community would think of building an important community building and having the architect and the contractors ruled by the uninformed public in the matter of how the building should be constructed. In the same way no city would construct a bridge across a river and allow the dear public to dictate the manner of its construction. Quite the contrary. In both these cases, experts would be selected and entrusted with all the details of carrying the project to a successful conclusion. That ought to be the principle by which our educational problems should be solved; but the war is giving us renewed evidence of the omnipotence of the local school board as swayed by local public opinion. It is a condition and not a theory, as the late Grover Cleveland once said, which confronts us. From various sources we learn that school boards are ruling out German for reasons which seem to them valid. In any attempt on our part to deal with this stampede we must face the conditions frankly. Personally, I am not in favor of the elimination of German. I do not recommend such action and I am not even pleased to learn that it is being taken, but as it is a condition and not a theory that confronts us, I am obliged as a student of affairs to recognize that certain things have brought about this state of affairs; and while the subject is not pleasant, we shall get nowhere in our discussion if we do not face the facts frankly and firmly.

Recently I had occasion to pay a tribute to a Professor of German, who is a German-born naturalized-American citizen, a gentleman and scholar, and a beloved friend. When the United States declared that a state of war existed between this country and the

country in which he was born, my first thought was of him. I knew his heart was broken, but I had no doubt of his loyalty to this country, nor have I now. *That* I believe to be the condition of the majority of our citizens of German descent. Unfortunately, it is not the attitude of all of them and under present circumstances the innocent are bound to suffer somewhat with the guilty. It is beside the issue to claim that the propagandist idea is being overworked by those who are taking action against German at the present time. The fact remains that there is sufficient evidence to show that leaders of German thought in Germany have been using deliberately in this country the propaganda in favor of German for the advantage of what they call *das Deutschum* through preventing the Americanization of expatriated Germans. It is also true that there are some distinguished German-Americans who have lived among us for thirty years or more who have deliberately carried on a similar campaign and who after all that long residence among us can find no point of comparison between this country and Germany, that is not to our disadvantage. I speak from a somewhat intimate knowledge of the facts since in my own family one of our women married the son of a distinguished German family. The man was a journalist, widely traveled, highly cultured, with an exquisite command of English and German and a wide acquaintance with French and music. Shortly after his marriage he spent two years in his home city and then, although his father offered to back him up with considerable wealth for a brilliant career, he refused to live in Germany and for the next thirty years lived in this country with triennial visits to his parents. Despite the difference in our ages (he was a man of my father's age) we were exceedingly intimate and yet he could never draw a comparison between the United States and Germany that did not leave the United States a sorry looking figure. Of public cases you are as well informed as I and we hardly need to multiply examples.

At the last annual meeting of the High School Conference at the University of Illinois one of the delegates read notices from the public press of France and England to the effect that in both those countries the authorities were urging as a war measure an increased study of German. Such a recommendation would have come with better grace from a non-German teacher of some subject other than German; but I have no disposition to quarrel with the method of



its presentation and am willing to examine the information on its face value. Of course, such a recommendation on the part of officials must be entirely dissociated from the question of how many pupils actually do pursue the subject during war times. It is quite conceivable that the authorities should recommend such a measure and that because of the vast diminution in the college and university population of the country there should actually be a marked diminution in the number of pupils pursuing the subject. To my mind these figures are entirely beside the issue and, as I said before, I am quite willing to accept the news of such governmental recommendation at its face value.

In these countries despite their proximity to Germany there has never been in the schools a pronounced pro-German propaganda. England and France like all the other continental countries have not to any appreciable extent employed foreigners or recently naturalized citizens in their schools. I have visited largely in the schools of Germany and France. I do not recall a single instance in Germany where a Frenchman was teaching French or an American or an Englishman was teaching English in a gymnasium or a polytechnikum or a *höheretöchterschule*. Similarly, I do not recall a single instance in France where a German was teaching German or an American or an Englishman was teaching English. And by and large the foreign language instruction in England is in the hands of Englishmen. Such has not been the case in this country and we have been asleep in a fool's paradise while allowing the widest opportunities for propaganda antagonistic to our own national ideals. In a paper of this length one cannot recite a great many specific cases and we must content ourselves with references to a few that are characteristic.

As long ago as September, 1902, the *Alldeutsche Blätter* published a letter from a New York German, Robert Thiem, which contained the following passage:

"The Germanization of America has gone ahead too far to be interrupted. Whoever talks of the danger of the Americanization of the Germans now here is not well informed or cherishes a false conception of our relations. \* \* \* In a hundred years the American people will be conquered by the victorious German spirit, so that it will present an enormous German Empire. Whoever

does not believe this lacks confidence in the strength of the German spirit."

The *Alldeutsche Blätter* in commenting on this letter says that the great hope for the future is for Germans in America to retain their language.

Later, in February, 1903, Wilhelm Hübbe-Schleiden, a noted traveller, student, and writer on German colonization, published in the same sheet the following statement:

"It is therefore the duty of everyone who loves language to see that the future language spoken in America shall be German. It is of the highest importance to keep up the German language in America, to establish German universities, improve the schools, introduce German newspapers, and to see that at American universities there are German professors of the very highest ability who will make their influence felt unmistakably on thought, science, art, and literature. If Germans bear this in mind, and help accordingly, the goal will eventually be reached. At the present moment the center of German intellectual activity is in Germany; in the remote future it will be in America. The Germans there are the pioneers of a greater German culture, which we may regard as ours in the future."

Recently in an investigation carried on by one of the senate committees, some interesting evidence was submitted along this same line in the form of a book written by Karl Junger with the introduction by Admiral Von Knorr of the German navy. Among the passages pointed out as of peculiar interest were some giving assurances of the strong German sentiment in the United States: the German churches, the German schools, the German Social Clubs, the German language press and the German-American alliance were all mentioned as means for the fostering of this sentiment, and for retarding the Americanization of German citizens in the United States.

Quotations from two other German papers, one of which at least was written by a German who has become an American citizen, are to the effect that "the use of the German language is sufficient to prevent the Americanization of the German citizens of the United States," and that, "classes in one of our large universities were used for propagandist purposes;" and still another quotation from a German paper was to the effect that the German-American Alliance

"had become a political power and had put the study of German in the public schools." A former Professor of German who is now connected with the Department of Justice testified in this same connection that prior to the outbreak of the war the propaganda of the German-American Alliance had been confined for the most part to having German taught in all the schools, opposing prohibition and urging preservation of Germanism by those of German blood in this country.

The obvious cure for a situation such as this is for us to adopt a practice somewhat like that in vogue in the countries under discussion which have suffered no such foreign-national propaganda. This would put us in line not only with *their* practice but with the practice and theory, distinctly and specifically so announced, of a distinguished Chilean delegate to the Second Pan-American Scientific Congress. This Congress had under discussion among other things the exchange of students and professors between North and South America. The gentleman in question is a university professor of English who speaks English admirably:

"I asked him point blank what kind of teachers he wishes to have in his English department. His reply, briefly summarized, was as follows: 'For all courses of regular instruction I insist on having natives of our own country who have not only been well trained in the best courses we give in English, but who have studied for a considerable period either in England or the United States, and who have thus become thoroughly conversant with English and American history, culture and literature, as well as with the idiomatic practices of the English and the Americans. My reason for this is two-fold: first, psychological; our compatriot knows all the difficulties that his pupils must meet, because he has had to meet them himself (this reason of course deals with the very fundamentals of pedagogy); and second, patriotic: I do not approve of having regular instruction in the hands of foreigners who seldom are able to acquire the point of view of their pupils, and who, even in the rare cases that do acquire such a point of view, have had to go through a long period of residence during which they did not have this point of view. All this of course does not mean that I do not wish to have any English or Americans in my department. Quite the contrary. For practice courses, both elementary and advanced I welcome both English and Americans who shall have made the

teaching of English their specialty, and who shall have attained some fluency in the speaking of Spanish, so that when the student wishes to ask how in English certain ideas are expressed and himself expresses those ideas in some Spanish idiom, the English or or American teacher shall know exactly the import of the phrase that the Chilean pupil is trying to transfer into English. For this latter work I naturally do not want the mere hack who happens to have a glib smattering of the language of his prospective pupils coupled with a slovenly use of his native tongue. I insist upon having brainy young English or American collegians, who, for the sake of the traveling experience, are willing to spend two or three years in a foreign country, and in a university atmosphere, while they are earning their way in a dignified, although temporary, position. In other words then, my regular permanent positions are for my compatriots trained as aforesaid, and my temporary practice positions are for the type of English or American that I have indicated.' "

This practice, *mutatis mutandis*, if adopted in our American schools, will go a long way toward curing the situation with which we are confronted and which candor compels us to admit has been forced upon us by those of our colleagues who have used their position for propagandist purposes.

Apropos of this matter of propaganda perhaps it would not be amiss for the present speaker to include a bit of personal confession. He has been instrumental in establishing in this country one *Deutscher Verein*, and one *Cercle Français*, of both of which he was for many years an enthusiastic member and attendant. He has also been an enthusiastic member of two different Spanish clubs and of the *Alliance Française*. If any of these organizations should at any time undertake a pro-foreign, anti-American propaganda, he would oppose them just as heartily as he has hitherto supported them.

In this connection he would like to relate an incident that came under his personal observation some years ago. The Spanish Chamber of Commerce of one of our largest cities was desirous of seeing the establishment of a Chair of Spanish in one of the local colleges. With that object in mind a resolution was presented to the Chamber. After calling attention to the importance of Spanish to the educated American, the resolution proceeded to recommend the establishment of the chair in the Spanish language

and literature at a salary similar to that already paid to the incumbents of the chairs of French and German. The resolution further recommended that to that chair there be elected some American Hispanist who should have been trained in the best university traditions of this country as well as under the best Hispanists in Europe.

Despite the modesty and thorough-going Americanism of this resolution, the Chamber decided not to present it to the Board of Trustees and their decision was reached on the ground that it might be considered interference by foreigners in American education. A similar attitude of restraint on the part of our colleagues from some other foreign countries would have spared us much of the unpleasantness of the present situation, at least in those phases of it which have to do with the aforesaid propagandist elements.

Now, however unscientific it may be to yield to a fear bred of a knowledge of such propaganda, and however much we educators should strive to control that fear on the part of our public, the fact remains that the fear exists and in democratic America, at such a time as this, the public is not going to abdicate a prerogative that it has persistently maintained in peace times, whereby it has always dictated to its educational leaders the kind of educational pabulum it has desired to have in its schools. Of course, I do not mean to be understood as urging that because of this stampede under war conditions, we educators should abdicate our right of protest and our right of preaching. Quite the contrary. It is the more incumbent upon us that at such a time we not only keep clear the escutcheon of our patriotism but that we also keep clear our vision as to the rights and merits of any controversy that arises. If we who are supposed to be the leaders permit ourselves to become blinded by partisan passion or even by patriotism, we shall fail in our highest duties to the public. The entire question must be settled by considering what is best for this country.

While we insist then, as educators, that all three of these languages, French, German, and Spanish, should be maintained in our colleges and universities, we believe that the best interests of our country require that we recognize the facts that are before us and learn our lesson. One of these facts is that a due proportion has not hitherto been maintained and that in establishing such due proportion, the language that has had two large a share of attention



must permanently lose that disproportionate attention. As patriotic Americans we must admit that a certain amount of anti-American propaganda has gone on, and this must be rooted out. To that end, we seem entirely within reason when we associate ourselves with the recent action of the Bureau of Education in recommending that no foreign language work be done below the seventh grade, and when we recommend further, that English be the language of instruction for all subjects in the grade school whether public or private.

When I mentioned this recommendation to one of our leading linguists, he said he was sorry that it had been made because he feared that in following it we should be committing the same error that Germany had committed in Alsace-Lorraine and the conquered Polish provinces, wherein the natives had not been permitted to continue the use of their own language. But my friend had overlooked the fundamental difference between the two sets of cases. In those that he mentioned a conqueror had gone into a conquered territory and had imposed his language upon the inhabitants. In this country the case is quite otherwise. Inhabitants of various countries have of their own free will left their home lands to emigrate to a land whose language was not their own. Such persons have no right to demand that the country of their adoption shall perpetuate the language of their home land. In democratic America one of the things upon which we place greatest reliance for aiding us in the proper fusion of all the disparate elements (racial, linguistic, and religious) that have come to us is the public school and our common English speech. Parochial schools of all types (I am using the phrase in its widest possible sense, and not in the restricted religious sense) are at variance with this fundamental principle and should not be allowed a free hand where their work acts as a hindrance to the general purposes of the country.

To the end, then, that we language teachers may prevent the subject of our predilection from being, or from being thought to be, a decentralizing or a retardative element in our educational system, we should affiliate ourselves whole-heartedly with a resolution recently taken in Washington, to-wit:

"The National Education Association Commission on the national emergency in education and necessary readjustment during and after the war, representing thousands of loyal and patriotic

teachers, believes the practice of giving instruction to children in the common branches in a foreign tongue to be un-American and unpatriotic, and we believe that all instruction in the common branches for all children in every state of this union should be in the English language.

"We, therefore, recommend that the instruction in the common branches, in both private and public schools, in all states be given in the English language only, and that every legitimate means, both state and federal, be used to bring about this result."

JOHN D. FITZ-GERALD.

University of Illinois.

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## THE PRESENT STATUS OF GERMAN IN FRANCE

Much has been said on this question, and glibly, especially during the past scholastic year here in our country. Subjective opinions have been cited to show now the obverse, now the reverse side. People differ, of course, in judging any situation as the opportunity for close and comprehensive study is not the same in all cases. Again, in a crisis like the present, it is exceedingly difficult to be absolutely free from bias. In the hope of arriving at some definite, objective results in this investigation, the writer has leaned solely upon "*Les Langues Modernes*," published in Paris, as it is the official monthly, now quarterly, Bulletin of the Association of Modern Language Teachers of Public Instruction in France.

No attempt has been made to classify the various utterances in their translation as to content or form, but "*Les Langues Modernes*" is quoted chronologically from August, 1914, to June, 1918, in so far as it concerns us.

N. Weiller furnishes the first official Report on the Teaching of German at the Lycée Jules Ferry for the school year 1914-1915 in the July-August issue of 1915. He says that the instruction in the German language has functioned normally in all the classes from the First Preparatory to the Fifth Secondary. Indeed, in the 'complementary' classes, there had been more pupils than in the preceeding year.

M. Potel, Inspector General of Public Instruction, speaks on "The Future of the Study of German in France" in the November-December number of 1915. He advises the pupils to study more German than ever. Defeated Germany will not disappear from the map of Europe, and our interests forbid us to ignore what will be going on in its boundaries. He exhorts the young people to follow with attention not only Germany's industrial and commercial development but also the teaching of its professors and the action of its associations, and to read what the contemporary German writers have to say.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>M. Potel still gives similar advice to us in America, cf. U. S. Bur. of Ed., Vol. I, No. 1, of *School Life*, 1918.

Anatole Graindemil advocates in the same issue the necessity of teaching German script early in the course as the Gothic characters are still extensively used and are an integral part of a real knowledge of the German language.

Ch. Garnier, January-February, 1916, contributes an interesting and significant observation. He says in one great French school he has noted an increase in the number of students of German. The best intellects resist the abolishment of that language. They feel that after the war the economic struggle will begin anew and that the abolition of German would be a tactical mistake.

Émile Simmonot, November-December, 1916, pages 204-243, is the author of the standard Report on the teaching of German in France. This report aims to be truly objective and is, indeed, the most valuable document upon the topic. The first part contains eight arguments cited against the study of German. The second and third constructive parts embody the reasons in behalf of retaining German.

The positive argumentation is thus: 1. The German language has pedagogic and educative value as its study constitutes intellectual training of the first order such as the Romance languages cannot furnish. 2. The learning of German is a scientific necessity for the scholar, the historian, the chemist, the scientist, the physician, and the engineer. 3. The study of that language is a political exigency. Even after the war, there will remain in central Europe an ethnic group of more than one hundred millions of German-speaking people with whom we have to deal. 4. Acquiring German is a military requisite. The very knowledge of that language has been of immense value to the French General Staff in making and in meeting military preparations. 5. To learn German is an economic requirement. Boycotting is poor policy.—M. David-Mennet, President of the Paris Chamber of Commerce, is quoted here: "To sell to the enemy means to have an advantage over him; to know his language means to possess a weapon against him."

Simmonot then mentions the noteworthy fact that the Germans do not dream of giving up the study of enemy-languages, that they, on the contrary, are increasing their instruction.

For us, the statement of Mr. Percy Peixotto, President of the American Chamber of Commerce in Paris, may be of interest

in this connection when he says: "We believe the French have every interest in studying the German language as well as English. After the actual fighting, they will carry their victorious struggle into the political domain of industrial and commercial expansion, and the knowledge of German will offer them an offensive and defensive weapon which is not only excellent but indispensable."

As to practical and pedagogic importance, the Report classifies the modern languages into two groups:

1. English, German, Russian.
2. Italian and Spanish.<sup>2</sup>

In conclusion, warning is given to refrain from violent reactions and from extreme measures, which may be irreparable. More than ever, we must keep our poise and should remember that the highest goal of teaching German is to make it serve French (i.e., national) aims.

From the January-February number, 1917, we learn that at the two great Military Academies, the Polytechnique and Saint-Cyr, for entrance either German or English or Russian are obligatory with a second modern language as an elective.

J. Douady makes in the concluding paragraph of his monograph, published in the May-June, 1917, number, this consequential statement that modern language teachers ask, indeed, but one thing, viz., to be allowed to cultivate their garden in peace and to have their little domain respected (i.e., principally English and German).

The last word spoken is again that of the supervising Head of Public Instruction in France, Maurice Potel, who in this wise addresses the modern language teachers serving in the Army: "At the beginning of the war we had to diminish the number of modern language classes; to-day the normal schedule is re-established almost everywhere. . . . Your pupils are more than ever interested in the study of modern languages. In the higher grades, many show the desire of learning a complementary language. They likewise more than ever wish to know the coun-

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<sup>2</sup>This classification seems to conform to actual teaching conditions. English is at present by all means the leading modern language in France, as the latest "Concours" indicate.

The recently published British Government Report on Modern Languages similarly places French and German first, Italian second, Russian next, and Spanish last.



tries, the languages of which they study." cf. issue of January-February-March, 1918.

Meager as the literature of the subject in *Les Langues Modernes* seems, we may yet draw a few inferences that are patently warranted:

1. The study of German is under fire in France during the war. Chauvinism naturally clamors for its abolition.
2. The educational authorities have no intention of giving up German, but on the contrary advise a keener study of it for reasons of weight.
3. Some pupils seem to have relinquished that branch of instruction, but not in great numbers.
4. Lack of authoritative statistical material makes it impossible to prove or disprove a heavy mortality, "a marked decrease" in the study of German for the French schools of to-day.

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## MANUALS OF FRENCH WITH REFERENCE TO OVERSEAS SERVICE

### III

The experiences of the past year have thrown much light on the problems connected with the teaching of French to the soldiers in our army. It is now fairly well understood what can be accomplished and what is useless to attempt. Educational work has been officially placed in the hands of the Y. M. C. A.; the recruiting of teachers and the methods of teaching have become systematized. During the coming winter it is likely that some of the difficulties of the situation will be less marked than they have been during the spring and summer. What is here said concerns only the teaching in the camps, without reference to the classes meeting under more normal conditions in colleges and schools.

To secure the advantages of uniformity, one of the French manuals already reviewed here was recommended for general use in the camps. Many teachers, however, found even this abbreviated course too long and too difficult, and others objected to one or another feature in the book. An entirely new manual has been prepared as the official text-book to be used by all Y. M. C. A. instructors in French. The compilers are men who have actually taught in the camps, and they have had the benefit of criticisms from many other teachers who have made use of various books. It is to be hoped, therefore, that the new manual will be acceptable to teachers who were not entirely satisfied with any of the books already published. It is limited in extent, simple but scientifically accurate in statement, emphasizing the forms of ordinary conversation, but introducing also a certain amount of military terminology. The pronunciation is indicated by accurate, easily learned, phonetic symbols. In order to avoid certain objectionable features in the symbols heretofore used, a system has been devised which is in part new. The wide use of the new manual will undoubtedly cause its system to supersede others, if, as seems certain, it proves in actual practice to be an improvement. The same symbols are to be introduced, it may

be added, in a revised edition of Wilkins and Coleman's "Army French," which will undoubtedly be widely used in regular college classes, and as a second book in camps where the classes continue beyond the time necessary to finish the manual adopted as a minimum. Among the other manuals already reviewed in these notes, those which have merit will continue to be useful as vocabularies of special subjects or as phrase-books. A number of others which have come to the notice of the reviewer may be mentioned here. Most of them are mere phrase-books, and in many of them the misuse of the term "phonetic" makes one's head swim. Only two or three attempt lessons in grammar.

A little book<sup>1</sup> issued by the Gordon-Detwiler Institute irritates by the extravagant claims put forth for it and by the inaccurate and unattractive way in which it is printed. It swarms with mistakes, from misprints to mistranslations; it lacks any systematic arrangement of the material; and its indication of the pronunciation is not only obscure and misleading, but different in different parts of the book. There is some treatment of the grammar, followed by military vocabularies and a list of trench slang; more or less useful information is, of course, contained in these word-lists. A most amusing mistake is *le directoire de la ville* for "the city directory" (p. 65). The reviewer cannot refrain from quoting a dialogue reported many years ago by *Punch*. An Englishwoman, wishing a directory of Paris, asks: "Avez-vous un directoire?" to which the puzzled Frenchman replies: "Non, Madame, nous avons une république à présent." We commend this to the attention of Mr. Detwiler in case he should revise the "Soldiers' French Course."

Two unpretentious pamphlets, prepared by instructors in two southern camps for use with their own classes, contain good material. The "Twelve Lessons" by Prof. Vernaelde<sup>2</sup> of Camp Johnston, contain words and phrases to be developed by the teacher, and would serve also as memoranda for the students; there is no treatment of the pronunciation. Mr. Palamountain's

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<sup>1</sup>Justice B. Detwiler, "Soldiers' French Course." New York, Gordon-Detwiler Institute, [1917]; pp. 203; price, \$1.50.

<sup>2</sup>Henri Vernaelde, Twelve Lessons of Conversational French for Enlisted Men. Jacksonville, Fla., Commission on Training Camp Activities; pp. 16; price, 10 cents.

French<sup>3</sup> contains considerably more grammar, simply and clearly explained, and accurate representation of the pronunciation. The nasal vowels are unfortunately indicated by italics, as in some of the manuals previously reviewed. In some lessons the phonetic spelling alone is given, without the ordinary French spelling. The vocabulary is well chosen.

Mlle. Gaudel, who publishes her own "Ideal System for Acquiring a Practical Knowledge of French," has also issued a little book<sup>4</sup> containing a series of word-lists, chiefly military; a good discussion of French pronunciation, which however would be puzzling to a beginner; a long "vocabulary of words in general use," and various useful tables. Many "fighters" would profit by the use of this book as a supplement to more systematic study of the language. The pronunciation is not indicated, except in the general rules given at the beginning.

The International College of Languages issues a conversational manual, "F. M. C."<sup>5</sup> which could be heartily commended if it were not burdened with a peculiarly atrocious "phonetic pronunciation." Who would guess, for instance, that "pyü" represented *paille* (p. 14); "bē-yā," *billet* (on p. 14); given, however, as "bē-yeh" on p. 17; "bā-tō," *bateau* (p. 10)? *Voitures* is represented as "vō-ā-tures," *moi* as "mōō-ā," *Savoy* as "sā-vwoi,"—all on the same page (p. 18)! *Prendre* is "pran," *temps* is "tahn"—both on p. 31. The phrases and word-lists, largely military in character, are well chosen and interesting. A folding map of the French front is included. A portion of the book can be had in the form of phonograph records.

A technical vocabulary for aviators, briefer than the one previously reviewed, comes from California.<sup>6</sup> There are hints

<sup>3</sup>J. C. Palamountain, "French," a first course designed for use in American cantonments. Army Y. M. C. A., Camp McClellan, Alabama, 1918; pp. 43.

<sup>4</sup>V. D. Gaudel, "French for Fighters." New York, published by the author, 32 West 68th St., 1917; pp. 68; price, 50 cents. An edition is also distributed with the "Compliments of the Guaranty Trust Company."

<sup>5</sup>R. M. Millar and A. Tridon, F.M.C., "French Military Conversation, Speaking and Pronouncing Manual for the Use of the United States and British Army Forces." New York, International College of Languages, [1917]; pp. 157 (many blank for notes); price, \$1.25.

<sup>6</sup>G. Chinard and E. R. Hedrick, "Handbook of English and French Terms for the Use of Military Aviators." Berkeley, University of California Press, 1917; pp. 48.

on the pronunciation of vowels, but not of consonants; throughout the book the silent letters in the French words are printed in lighter-faced type—an expedient of little use. Each group of words is arranged alphabetically according to the English, the French equivalent following. No phrases are given—in fact, the aviator is advised to use single words, and not try to form sentences. After the technical word-lists there follows (pp. 32-48) a vocabulary of words of general use. Aviators unable to speak French would do well to have this handbook with them; and the technical terms, seemingly authoritative are given in convenient form. Two other publications for aviators may be mentioned: "The Aviators's Pocket Dictionary" and "Aviation Technical Dictionary."<sup>8</sup> These both have French-English word-lists as well as English-French.

Relief workers will find French word-lists arranged with reference to their needs in two small booklets by Shaw Jeffrey<sup>9</sup> and Ernest Perrin.<sup>10</sup> The latter's "Hospital French" consists of questions and phrases in English and French, prepared under the auspices of the base hospital division, N. Y. county chapter of the American Red Cross, for use by doctors and nurses of the hospital units working in the base hospitals in France. The questions are arranged to permit in general the answer "yes" or "no," so that a doctor or nurse, ignorant of the patient's language, may be enabled to give him directions and obtain information from him; all of which is commendable, provided the doctor or nurse can pronounce the French phrases intelligibly. Helpful, but of course inadequate rules for pronunciation are given at the beginning. The phrases themselves are admirably arranged for their purpose, and this little booklet can be extremely valuable, especially to persons who have had what all hospital attendants should have, a course of French pronunciation under a competent teacher.

A number of booklets containing useful words and phrases, but all of them unsatisfactory in their treatment of the pronuncia-

<sup>7</sup>A. de Gramont de Guiche, "The Aviator's Pocket Dictionary and Table-talk," New York, Brentano's, 1918; pp. 120; price, \$1.

<sup>8</sup>John Lycett, "Aviation Technical Dictionary," Paris, Dunot & Pinat, 1918; pp. 182; price, fr. 6.

<sup>9</sup>Shaw Jeffrey, "Elementary French Words and Phrases for Red Cross Workers and the New Army," New York, Brentano's; price, 25 cents.

<sup>10</sup>Ernest Perrin, "Hospital French," New York, Dutton, [1917]; pp. 37.



tion, have had considerable vogue. In the camps of the Central Department, thousands of copies of the "Soldiers' French Phrase Book"<sup>11</sup> have been distributed gratis by a manufacturing company. The phrases are simple and well selected. The English is followed by the French equivalent, and this by the indication of pronunciation, the key to which is repeated at the foot of every page. The claim is made that "a few minutes study of the following sounds, which are indicated by letters similarly marked in the text, will make it possible for one unacquainted with the language to pronounce French words correctly." Comment is superfluous.

In the 5-and-10 cent stores and elsewhere, many copies have been sold of "Speak French."<sup>12</sup> Like the preceding booklet, it hides its authorship under anonymity. "We fully realize," says the preface, "that *onh* does not exactly represent the French nasal sounds of *on* and *an*, but neither does *anh*, nor *ang*, nor *ong*." How true! nevertheless, *faim*, is "phonetically" represented by "fanh," and *pain* by "penh;" why this discrimination? As a curiosity we may add "su-prrairm" for *suprême*. The general rules given (pp. 79-82) for pronouncing are fairly good, but the system of indicating the pronunciation is very bad. Need we insist that the only proper course, aside from *viva voce* instruction, is to explain the French sounds as well as may be, and to adopt a system of indicating them which is not based on so-called English equivalents? The vocabulary of "Speak French" is largely military.

Somewhat more pretentious, but equally amateurish and misleading in its treatment of the pronunciation, is "The American Soldier in France,"<sup>13</sup> described as "a military guide-book to the French language, army and nation," the author having been an artillery officer in the French army. The book is divided into sections: special and technical vocabularies, practical dialogues, grammatical information, army slang, tables, etc. Much useful information about France and the French army is given, but on the linguistic side it cannot be recommended.

<sup>11</sup>"The Soldiers' French Phrase Book," Chicago, Felt & Tarrant Mfg. Co., 1918; pp. 46.

<sup>12</sup>"Speak French," a book for the Soldiers. A complete vocabulary of military and common words, etc. Cleveland, the Goldsmith Publishing Co., [1917]; pp. 118; price, 10 cents.

<sup>13</sup>George Nestler Tricoche, "The American Soldier in France." Second edition. Morristown, N. J., 1917; pp. 106; price, 50 cents.

The Montant Method<sup>14</sup> is described as an "emergency phrase-book with phonetic pronunciation," expressly compiled for men in the U. S. Army in France. It pronounces the name of this country "A-tah Zoo-nee," which is evidently to be taken as the author's idea of phonetic.

The "Oxford English and French Conversation Book"<sup>15</sup> claims to be "a simple, accurate method that enables anyone to converse in French on all subjects." A book which would do that is surely cheap at any price. This one, however, is not essentially different from the others here mentioned. It contains words and phrases military, naval and aeronautical, with some simple treatment of the grammar.

Hernan's "What You Want to Say and How to Say it," published for beginners in various languages, is issued in a special war edition for French.<sup>16</sup> Originally compiled for ordinary travelers, it was amplified by a vocabulary of military words and phrases to meet the requirements of the British forces, and thousands of copies have been given to soldiers in England. The material is well chosen and practical, so far as vocabulary is concerned. There is no grammar and no description of French sounds, but "the syllabification of the phonetic spelling accompanying each word makes easy correct pronunciation at a glance." For instance—"soo-fee' z-au (ng) 't," which somehow seems more than *suffisante*. A phonetic gem is "chew-nick" for *tunique*. Apparently, as Mr. Hernan observes, "nahm-port kwah fe-rah laugh-fare."

Many original devices are used in Dr. Rudy's "French Key,"<sup>17</sup> which the author says, "unlocks French" for persons who are "without a good knowledge of French grammar." Ingenious as the book is, its usefulness to a person of no linguistic experience may be questioned. A long list of "word-endings," including many inflectional terminations of verbs, is followed (pp. 11-41)

<sup>14</sup>A. Montant, "The Montant Method"—New York, published by the author; pp. 51; price, 10 cents.

<sup>15</sup>R. Sherman Kidd and C. L. Cabot, "Oxford English and French Conversation Book for Army and Navy Men." Seventh edition. Boston, Oxford-Print, 1918; price, 35 cents.

<sup>16</sup>W. J. Hernan, "What You Want to Say and How to Say it in French." U. S. War Edition, special issue, [1917]; pp. 62; price, 25 cents.

<sup>17</sup>A. Rudy, "French Key for Soldiers and Sailors," San Antonio, Texas, published by the author, 1918; pp. 78; price, 25 cents.

by a French-English vocabulary, which contains "root-words" to which the endings are to be affixed, and also many separate verb-forms in their alphabetical place. Slang is given undue prominence by being printed in capitals. Then follow lists of cognates, an English-French vocabulary, and various hints for forming sentences. The author has promised a revised and enlarged edition.

The "International Conversation Book"<sup>18</sup> contains two corresponding sections, English-French and English-German, bound together. A portion, but not all of it, is a reprint of W. M. Gallichan's "Soldiers' English-French Conversation Book," previously reviewed. A translation of the same into Italian has appeared, for the use of American soldiers in Italy; and with this publication these notes may be brought to a close. It is, of course, as desirable for our troops in Italy to have a command of the language of the country, as for our troops in France. There is an evident need for a brief manual to teach elementary Italian, both military and general; when it comes, let us hope that it will be as good in its way as the best of the French manuals, and worthy of a permanent place among the comparatively few text-books of Italian. Unfortunately, Miss Dickinson's<sup>19</sup> adaptation is no better than its model. The word-lists will be useful, in default of better ones; the vocabulary of military operations and of ordinary conversation is fairly well treated. But aside from various misprints, the method of presenting the pronunciation is absurd and often misleading. Italian intonation is of course not easy to master; but reasonable correctness or at least intelligibility is not difficult. Miss Dickinson, however, makes it seem almost impossible. For one thing, she never indicates which syllable is to be accented; and the sound *a* is represented sometimes by "ah" sometimes by "ar." Such indications as "vo-lee-oh" for *voglio*, "arn-dee-ah-moh arl gal-lop-poh" for *andiamo al galoppo*, indicate how badly a comparatively easy piece of work has been done.

<sup>18</sup>"International Conversation Book," Philadelphia, Winston, [1917]; pp. 137 + 118; price, 35 cents.

<sup>19</sup>Ida Dickinson, "The Soldiers' English and Italian Conversation Book," translated and adapted from W. M. Gallichan's "Soldiers' English-French Conversation Book." Philadelphia, Lippincott, 1918; pp. 128; price, 30 cents.

The purpose of these notes has been to give a brief description of publications intended to teach French to the American forces before and after they are transported to Europe. It is hoped that certain principles have been demonstrated, and in particular the fact that some teachers who are doubtless successful with their classes fail utterly when they attempt to record in print for the use of others their methods of teaching. Pronunciation especially will be learned chiefly by imitation; injudicious attempts by unqualified persons to impart it, or by unprepared learners to acquire it, through the printed page alone, are certain to result in disappointment.

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## A FEW NEGLECTED PLATITUDES ON MODERN LANGUAGE EXAMINATIONS

After ages of school examinations, there is confusion as to their purpose, their scope, and the technique of constructing them. Examiners frequently vacillate between two distinct conceptions. We may call them the civil service and the army conceptions.

Suppose there is a vacancy in the position of purveyor to institutions for the insane, and the selection has to be made by civil service examination. There may be a thousand candidates for the job and 500 of them may be equally fit. We don't want 500 with a rating of a hundred per cent, for then we should have the original problem of selection still on our hands. We, therefore, make the examination as "hard" as possible. We put into it profound and tricky questions, and so manage to get the candidate's ratings strung out all the way from about 75 to zero. The eligible list now has a proper top and a bottom.

But suppose we want soldiers for the army. We cannot get too many, though those we do get must be fit. We now, with an eye to the work cut out for soldiers, arrange our tests so that no one incapable of standing the strain will pass, but we gladly accept all those who can.

The difference between the two types of examination is, that in the one we wish to fail as many as possible, while in the other we wish to pass as many as possible. A school examination is of the army sort. We want candidates for promotion, and there is no limit short of 100 per cent of the class to the number that may be accepted.

Examiners are not, of course, entirely unaware of the purpose, as above indicated, of school examinations. They do not, however, consistently adhere to it. Sometimes they are swayed by the notion of affording the brilliant boys an opportunity of showing their brilliancy, and of exposing the dullness of the dull ones. A prize competition may have such an aim but not a regular term examination. A term examination is merely a net with meshes large enough to let the little fishes fall back into the pool from which they were dipped. We are not concerned with the comparative sizes of those that remain in the net. They are all good for our purpose.

Another motive that sometimes vitiates the examiner's plan, is that of using the examination as a means of rating the teacher. It may be conceded that examination results—percentages of passing pupils—do, when properly interpreted, in a rough way, give an indication of the quality of teachers. It is, however obvious, that this end will be more accurately achieved in proportion as it is ignored. It is an unwieldy process to aim questions at the teacher through the pupils.

If the practical aim of the examination is to aid in the selection of pupils who are capable of benefiting by the instruction in the next higher grade, what shall be the technique of the examination? Aside from a few very general principles, the rules that may be of practical value are special to each subject. In what follows, I shall, therefore, confine myself to the subject of modern languages.

It is an elementary principle in all mental tests that there should be no difficulty or ambiguity about the questions and directions. Questions should not be put that require for their comprehension abilities of a different kind from those that are to be tested. Examiners sometimes seem to be engaged in an effort to outflank the pupil—their mode of approach is so extremely oblique. Here, for example, is a question from a recent Regents paper in third year German: "Die Verben ähneln, danken, folgen, gehorchen, gleichen regieren den Dativ. Bilden Sie Adjektive, die mit diesen Verben verwandt sind, und schreiben Sie deutsche Sätze, in denen diese Adjektive vorkommen." In formulating this question the examiner was plainly laboring under the ban (introduced from Germany a few years ago) against using the pupil's native language. But an examination in a foreign language is certainly not intended to test the pupils' ability to catch the examiner's drift when concealed in a complicated style of his own.

When an examination is set by the teacher who taught the class, there is seldom any difficulty on the score of subject-matter. The teacher knows what he has taught. When the examiner is not the teacher, we get the very common discrepancy between the examiner's idea of what the pupils ought to know and what they were actually taught. In the good old Latin and Greek days boys studied Caesar and Xenophon and there was never any doubt as to what they were expected to know. They were



expected to know the Commentaries and the Anabasis. Our modern language examinations do not test knowledge of a text, but of the unconfined language. Now it is well known that a language like French, German, or English is not one, but many. There is the language of the restaurant, of the schoolroom, of the shop, of the scientific world, of literature, of politics and of philosophy. One may be proficient in some of these, yet ignorant of others. Suppose that instead of giving candidates for a teacher's license in English a poem of Browning's to read and paraphrase, one gave them a page of Marshall's "Political Economy," or of Bradley's "Appearance and Reality"!

All this applies, of course, with much greater force to school-boys. Their vocabulary, their idioms, are artificially selected by the teacher. It is therefore unreasonable to expect them to be at home upon the limitless ocean of the whole language, or upon a sample taken at random from the whole language. The sample has to be taken from their artificial universe, that is, from the material drilled and made familiar by the teacher. The student early discovers that analogy is a treacherous, although an indispensable guide. He fears to rely upon it when he should; he is often betrayed when he does. His caution in hesitating to say what he has not himself heard is quite justifiable.

One of the most frequent sources of irritation in school examinations is the method of scoring. Do examiners assign ten credits to one question and two to another in accordance with some scientific scheme, or is their one guiding star the need of getting a total of a hundred? Why are some translations on Regents examinations rated 40 and others 20?

The first distinction we have to make—and it is one that all examiners do make roughly—is between frequent and rare language phenomena. Pupils use the personal pronouns many times a day, but very seldom use the subjunctive of "sterben." If a pupil shows ignorance of the personal pronouns he reveals much greater stupidity than if he showed unfamiliarity with the subjunctive of "sterben." The teacher who is inclined to regard examinations as a means of rewarding bright pupils with high marks will feel like attaching great value to the subjunctive of "sterben." But we should bear in mind the purpose of the test—to select those for promotion who can use the language they have

been taught—and that the relative frequency of the subjunctive of “sterben” to the personal pronouns, both in and out of school, is, say, as one to ten thousand.

The principle of relative frequency may be illustrated in another way. Suppose one wishes to test the range of the pupil’s vocabulary. For the sake of simplicity, and taking an extreme example, let us say we give ten words to be translated, and rate each correct answer, one. But the list contains seven rare nouns and verbs and three ordinary pronouns and prepositions. A boy might miss the seven and be rated thirty on the question, but obviously the rating would have no practical significance.

Another elementary principle frequently overlooked is the necessity of keeping the points for which one is testing distinct. If I wish to know whether a boy understands the use of the accusative case after a certain preposition, I should not give him a noun to use that he has never heard of. If I wish to determine whether he knows the use of the passive voice, I should give him one of the most common verbs to illustrate with, since I am not at that moment concerned with the range of his vocabulary.

Every examination in languages contains as the *pièce de résistance* a passage for translation, yet there is no uniformity in the methods of scoring this part of the examination. It frequently happens that teachers marking the same translation vary from one another by 20 per cent. in the credits assigned the passage. It has been proposed to use Thorndike’s “scale” device in rating translations. A scale of graded texts would be a long step in the right direction. But after you had your scale you would still be confronted with the tedious and uncertain process of marking deviations from the correct translation.

Why not face the fact that translation is an exercise in two languages, not in one? This double feat was much prized in the days of classical education, but in modern language teaching, emphasis has shifted. A passage assigned for translation may be regarded as a definite number of difficulties in vocabulary and idiom, and it may be scored on such a basis. The clause or phrase should be regarded as the unit, not the paragraph, and certainly not the line. A standard scale of texts would make impossible, what sometimes occurs, the setting of a passage for

translation in the third year that is easier than the one set for the second year.

Some teachers want questions that test "power" in an examination paper. "Power" in the handling of a foreign language means chiefly fluency—that is, speed. Anybody can formulate a sentence in any foreign language if given time enough. An eminent Egyptologist, if suddenly transported to a restaurant in the time of the Pharaohs, would be unable to order a breakfast before starving. Yet with ample leisure he succeeds in deciphering inscriptions on all the tombs and pyramids on the shores of the Nile.

Another form of power is ability to handle complex material without becoming confused and making mistakes. This would be shown in correctly using long sentences with interdependent clauses and phrases.

Now in actual conversation we have a time limit put upon everything we say. One must answer before one's interlocutor becomes impatient and goes away. Examinations nearly always have a time limit set, but this is intended only to save pupils and proctors from physical exhaustion. A scientific test of power or fluency, would be made with a stop-watch.

Everyone who has given any thought to the subject, is aware of the fact, that in the acquisition of a foreign language several rather distinct abilities come into play. At the base are, of course, auditory and visual perception. Then comes the so-called "brute retentiveness," the ability to remember and recall words; and not only single words, but words in combination, in idioms. And at the top is the power of abstract thinking, the ability to distinguish kinds of thoughts as such, between the statement that is a wish and one that is a condition, between a situation that has the accusative idea and one that has the dative idea. Without these powers of abstraction and reasoning by analogy, it is needless to say, the pupil will never become an adept in languages. To test these powers should be the function of examinations in the most advanced courses. Here is where the terminology of grammar may be freely employed.

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## THE POSITIVE ELEMENT IN THE CORRECTION OF WRITTEN WORK

Correcting and grading papers is the bane of the existence of most teachers. The large stack of papers to be graded is looked upon as a necessary evil and the only consolation that the poor teacher gets out of the work is the thought that every worthwhile thing has its unattractive side. He puts a positive emphasis on teaching because he enjoys the work and is interested in it, but he corrects his papers only because he has to. He corrects and grades with the feeling that if he does not perform this duty, something will go wrong — the student will want to know "what he got," the parent will want to know how his boy is progressing in his work, and the principal will want to know what the standing of the pupil is. The teacher has a subconscious feeling that if he is not able to answer these questions there will be some unpleasantness in store for him. His feeling is a negative one, is what will happen if he does not, and not what will happen if he does.

The conscientious teacher, however, masters his feelings and works patiently through the mass of papers to be corrected, marking mistake after mistake. (Again the negative element, for he marks what the student has wrong, not what he has right). When he gets through with the paper, what a horrid-looking thing it is! Literally covered with red or blue marks! A keen disappointment to the teacher who has labored so hard to bring his boys and girls up to a worthwhile standard! It will also probably be a disappointment and possible discouragement to some ambitious but slow-witted student. But the teacher is sustained by the hope that the red and blue marks will bring vividly before the student's mind the error of his ways and cause him immediately to reform. And finally, the catastrophe of this little tragedy occurs when the paper is handed to the student, he glances at the grade on the sheet, and throws the paper into the waste paper basket. The teacher probably asks himself, "What's the use?" If he should try to answer this he would have to say the student, the parents, and the record would want to know what the student got on the paper.

It seems to me that the whole trouble with this method of grading lies in the fact that it is a negative and not a positive method. The question should be not what would happen if the paper is not graded, but what positive good can be done by grading it. What should grading accomplish? The teacher who asks himself that question and thinks sincerely upon it will come to some conclusions as to what it will accomplish. After he has reached these conclusions he will soon devise methods to accomplish them.

In the first place, the correcting and grading of papers should contribute toward putting the student in the right mental attitude toward his work. A disgruntled student does poor work. A student who feels that he has gotten an unjust grade on his paper will do poorer work because of it. We underestimate the student's mentality when we think that he does not recognize poor or slack grading on our part. The teacher should sincerely strive to acquire as just methods as possible for estimating the grades of his students, and strive to make them feel the justness of these methods. Absolute frankness between teacher and student in regard to grades seems to me to be one of the best ways of creating this feeling. The student should be definitely encouraged to inquire frequently about his standing. This gives the teacher the opportunity of telling him in what respects he is doing well in his work and in what respects he needs to strengthen himself. No doubt the sole motive of the student in inquiring is a desire to know what reward he is getting for his work, but his inquiry results in his not only ascertaining this fact but, in case his standing is low, it may result in causing him to make a renewed effort to improve his work, it will show him where his weaknesses are, and will convince him that the teacher is dealing openly, frankly and justly with him with the sole intention of bettering him individually.

We have all heard students remark, "What's the use of working, you don't get what you make anyhow." Even if we deduct a large per cent. from the value of such a statement, because of the ignorance of standards and because of personal pique on the part of the student, such remarks are very often justified by slack methods of grading on the part of the teacher. If the student reacts thus in a negative way to the feeling of injustice, would it

be unreasonable to expect him to react in a positive way to the belief that the teacher is making every effort to give him justice and a square deal?

In the second place, the grading of papers should be pedagogical. That sounds like a foolish statement and there ought not to be any necessity for making such a statement. But the average teacher spends a great deal of time studying the pedagogy of the classroom, but forgets it immediately that he begins grading papers. What is the purpose of marking the mistakes on a paper with red ink or blue pencil? So that the student might see his mistakes and not make them again. But does he see his mistakes? No, he sees his grade and throws the paper away, unless the present movement for conservation causes him to carry it home for scratch-paper. If he does not look at his mistakes, and nine-tenths of our students do not, then all that labor and ink have gone to waste, and the whole proceeding is therefore unpedagogical. Is it natural to expect a student of the high school age, "busy" as he is, to look through a whole paper? Each mistake should be brought to his attention, preferably soon after it is made, and he be required to correct this. If he has had home-work to do, he can correct his own work as the teacher or some other pupil reads the correct form. I have found one of the best methods for accomplishing this is to have the class lay aside the papers with home-work, and rewrite from the board the exercise, the teacher going from desk to desk and correcting the sentences as they are written. When all the sentences have been corrected, the grade can be given. The work is done, the pupil has seen his mistakes, and the teacher has no papers to carry home. This plan is especially feasible for a test. The writer rarely has a test paper to grade after the hour in which the test is given. When the pupils are through with the first question he starts at one side of the room, and goes from desk to desk correcting them. By the time he gets to the other side of the room the pupil with whom he started has probably number two and three done and the teacher starts over again. The pupils like this method, for they see what progress they are making in the test.

But at best the marking of mistakes is a negative method. Good pedagogy requires that we emphasize the correct form and not the incorrect form. So the writer has devised a system of



credits for what is correct and ignores the mistakes. If the exercise is to supply words for blanks he gives one credit for every word correctly supplied and of course gives no credit for wrong words. When through, the student himself is allowed to add his credits, multiply by one hundred and divide by the total number of credits in the exercise and get his own grade. If it is an English-German exercise, one credit is given to every word and the grade based upon the total number of words in the exercise. If it is a test, each question gets the same number of credits as the definite number of things that the teacher wants told in the question. For instance, if the question is, "What verbs take *sein* to form the perfect tense", there would be one credit for "intransitive", one for "motion", and one for "change of condition". If the exceptions were wanted, one credit would be given for each exception. The questions are generally written on the board with the credit-value opposite each question, the total number of credits at the bottom. The teacher goes from seat to seat as the students write and gives each question its value by credits. When the student is through, he adds up his own credits, multiplies by one hundred, divides by the total number of credits and has his grade.

The writer sincerely believes that this positive, accurate method of grading both home-work and tests has given his students the feeling that they will get everything that is due them and nothing that is not, thus giving them a definite goal to work for; also that it has greatly improved their work by emphasizing the correct forms rather than the incorrect.

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## REVIEWS

### RECENT TEXTS FOR JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL GERMAN

- (A) **Leitfaden der deutschen Sprache** by W. H. Gohdes and E. R. Dodge. H. Holt & Co. 1917. ix + 290 pp. \$1.00.
- (B) **Ein Anfangsbuch** by Laura B. Crandon. Illustrated by Alida Clément. World Book Co. 1917. xiv + 306 pp. \$.96.
- (C) **Schritt für Schritt, ein Buch für Anfänger** by Hannna M. Oehlmann. Ginn & Co. 1917. vi + 151 pp. \$.60.

With the spread of the Junior High School idea the demand for the production of a new type of text for the various branches of study has become imperative. The uncertainty as to just what a JHS is, and just how the work in it is to be conducted, has perhaps retarded the production of texts more than would otherwise have been the case. The conception of JHS work as merely a simplification of the former four-year high-school course has given rise to a series of texts for German that began with Mrs. Gronow's *Jung Deutschland* (Ginn) in 1912, and is also apparently responsible for (A) and (B). The fundamentally different, more liberal conception, and to the writer's way of thinking, the correct one, has looked upon the JHS as a means for a more or less complete renovation and reorganization of secondary instruction, and is only just commencing to produce in its wake a line of beginning texts, of which the revised Foster's *Geschichten und Märchen* (Heath) was perhaps the pioneer, and to which (C) belongs. In choosing a first book for JHS use, teachers must be fully conscious of what type will fit into their plan of instruction. The bare statement of author or publisher that his text is for JHS use is somewhat non-committal and needs further elucidation.

It is not the intention here to go into any detailed discussion of these three texts, but rather merely to indicate their type, comment on their general execution, and point out where they may profitably be used. (A) states in the preface that it "is designed to meet the needs of young beginners, especially those in JHS. It consists of a few pages of preliminary exercises, a main portion comprising forty-five lessons, a brief systematic Grammar (in English), a special and general vocabulary." The work is very commendably done, as was to be expected of the senior author especially, from his connection with the excellent *Sprach- und Lesebuch* (Holt 1912), which has contributed liberally to the present grammar synopsis. Unfortunately the absolutely unorthodox noun classification of the earlier book is retained here, leading to almost inevitable confusion in the upper years when other reference books are used. Also the same confusing categorical arrangement of the words in the special vocabularies occurs here as before. The exercises are somewhat lacking in variety, but are on the whole excellent. An abundance of good reading material is provided. The illustrations are numerous

and quite pleasing, although exception might be taken to the left-handed mower on p. 33 and the "goose step" on p. 42. Special attention ought to be called to the *Vorübungen*, which indicate in such an excellent way, far too briefly for actual needs, of course, how the first half year or so of JHS work might be done. As in practically every recent book, a few songs with music are inserted.

(B) "has been written primarily for JHS. . . . There has long been felt the need of a systematic presentation of grammar in connection with simple reading matter. This book has attempted to meet this need and at the same time to keep the child mind unconscious of the grammar. . . . The book can (also) be used for beginners in the ordinary four-year high-school courses." After a brief set of *Notes to Teachers* there follows the *Erster Teil* with 36 *Aufgaben*, then the *Zweiter Teil* with 29 additional *Aufgaben*, dealing with the more difficult grammar topics. An appendix of forms, special and general vocabularies, and an index complete the book. The reading selections are numerous and seem well chosen and adapted. The exercises are plentiful, simple and quite varied. Pronunciation is given special attention in Part I, and many drill exercises are provided. A striking feature are the sections entitled *Zum Spielen*, with definite instructions for many simple classroom games which cannot help but be of enormous aid to the novice at this sort of teaching. With very few exceptions the grammar is treated solely by means of model phrases or forms, plus abundant drill. Rarely a principle or rule is directly stated. The illustrations are plentiful and appropriate.

There can be no doubt that both (A) and (B) aim primarily at teaching grammar systematically. The reading material is used consciously for that purpose and one scarcely sees how the pupils could be kept unconscious of it. This is more plainly the case with (A) than with (B). The latter represents a somewhat intermediate stage between (A) and (C). The preface of (C) states that "this little reader, planned for use in connection with a simple grammar. . . . is intended for the use of grammar grades and intermediate schools, with children from eleven to fourteen or fifteen years of age." There are 80 pp. of reading text, plentifully besprinkled with illustrations of the same type as those in (A) and (B). In the beginning many of the little tales are dramatized, thus indicating a treatment for the later ones, which are given in narrative form. The selection is very good. Vocabulary help is given by means of English translations at the end of each selection, and a general German-English vocabulary is added. There are a few songs with music. The feature that makes it possible to include (C) with (A) and (B) is the 30-page section of *Fragen und Übungen*, which aim primarily at impressing the subject-matter of the stories on the minds of the pupils, but which contain an excellent and extremely simple introduction to the first principles of grammar. A trial with a JHS class has proved conclusively the practical usability of this book as a first text.

The writer is not a prophet, but he hopes to see the day come when we shall have JHS teachers of modern languages trained to the point where they can introduce their classes to the subject-matter without the use of a text-book

during the first two or three months, employing the simple means of acquiring a good pronunciation and a basic vocabulary that are indicated, for instance, all too briefly in the first few pages of (A) or (B). Then, leaving the systematic study of grammar for the second year, the rest of the first year could be devoted to work with such texts as (C). In the second year, while proceeding with the reading, a text of the nature of (A) or (B), divested of its *Vorübungen*, and consciously written for this stage of the work, would naturally suggest itself for the introduction to theoretical grammar. There are at present a number of such books available in addition to (A) and (B), but owing to the fact that they were written with other things in mind, they contain much superfluous material that must be eliminated in actual use.

Until such a stage of development as we have mentioned above has come about, there will still be need of the mixed type of text represented by (A) and (B), affording a crutch for the teacher as well as material for the pupil. Owing to the excellence of this teacher-assistance, it seems to the writer that (B) offers perhaps the best choice at present on the market for the teacher who has had small experience with this grade of work, and who wishes to have a book from the very beginning. On the other hand, for second-year JHS grammar study, (B) is superior to (A), with the understanding that the *Vorübungen* are to be omitted. For the experienced and resourceful JHS teacher who wishes no systematic grammar the first year, (C) offers even somewhat better assistance than Miss Foster's book mentioned above, which has for several years stood alone as the representative of this particular type of text.

Wisconsin High School, University of Wisconsin.

J. D. DEIHL.

**"Zaragüeta" con notas y vocabulario por M. A. de Vitis; George Wahr, Ann Arbor, 1917.**

Cuando acababa yo de leer las notas de la presente edición de "Zaragüeta," con el regocijo que sólo puede imaginarse el que tenga la curiosidad de hojear la obrita, llegó a mis manos el número de "The Modern Language Journal," February, 1918, en el cual mi compatriota M. Romera-Navarro coge por su cuenta "A Spanish Reader for Beginners" del mismo autor y nos señala unos doscientos cincuenta errores encontrados en el texto. Al terminar la lectura de la reseña, que podemos calificar de excesivamente bondadosa porque no señala todo lo malo que hay en el libro, varias preguntas se me vinieron en rápida sucesión a la mente: ¿Cuándo van a terminarse de publicar libros de esta clase? ¿Qué ventajas nos traen la mayoría de los libros de texto para la enseñanza del español, que están saliendo con tan excesiva frecuencia? George W. H. Shield en su artículo "Spanish Readers" publicado en el primer número de "Hispania," se queja con razón de la prisa que estos caballeros se dan a sacar nuevos libros sin darnos tiempo ni aun de leerlos detenidamente: pero la circunstancia del número merece escasa consideración al lado de la primordial de su valor pedagógico. Un ilustre colega del Este insiste en que no debe aceptarse un libro para la enseñanza de lenguas con más de dos errores por cada mil palabras. ¿Qué diría Vd. de un libro con sesenta errores

en una sola página de veintitrés líneas?, le pregunté. Mi interlocutor no cree que tal libro exista. Sin embargo existe y no es único en su clase.

Sabiendo que en el texto sólo encontraría los inevitables errores de imprenta, pasé a las notas, usualmente fuente de erudición en la mayoría de los textos anotados por maestros americanos; éstas ocupan treinta y cinco páginas, escritas en español, con algunas palabras, aquí y allá, en inglés, en las cuales el curioso lector puede darse un hartazón de risa como quizá no lo haya experimentado en ningún teatro del género cómico. Como muestra ahí van algunas de las aclaraciones que el autor nos ofrece en sus notas:

*Salamanca*, provincia en la parte central-este de España.

*hacendado*, dueño de una finca (*propiedad* inmueble)

*muebles decentes*, apropiados. En este caso decentes significa *convenientes*. *alacena*, armario.

*colchade punto*, bordado.

*huésped*, persona que visita en casa de otra persona.

*me ha dado Dios unas manos para cuidar enfermos*, un par de manos finas, excelentes.

*usté*, usted. En Andalucía y en algún país hispano-americano la *d* al fin de palabras o entre dos vocales, muy a menudo no se pronuncia. (El autor no nos dice como deben pronunciarse las palabras *adocenado*, *adinerado*, *oda*, *odalisca*, etc. incluídas en esta regla)

*sarmientos*, ramas de la vid, aquí por metáfora se toma por leña muy delgada. *el herrero la ha dejado como nueva*, la ha hecho.

*chocolate*, en España es costumbre servir chocolate a los huéspedes, en vez de té como en América.

*biscochos*, galletas, (crackers).

*si estás hecha un pimpollo*, creces como la mala yerba.

*armario*, mueble en el cual se ponen los artículos de la cocina.

*jarabe de caracoles* (snail syrup). El jarabe se usó en otro tiempo en medicina.

*reparos*, remedios caseros.

*nos hará la visita*, nos entretendrá.

*como nos HABEMOS de arreglar*.

*apoyo*, ayuda, (la misma palabra se encuentra dos veces más).

*Vaya con Pío*, ¡has hecho muy bien Pío! (Good for Pío)

*Deja*, cesa. Tradúzcase aquí como *se* fuera; no.

*apeado*, demontado.

*brodequines*, chinelas, (Slippers).

*zapatillas*, zapatos ligeros de suela muy delgada; low shoes.

*el oído*, la oreja.

*camarero*, mozo. El camarero de un café está responsable por todo lo que sirve a los parroquianos, y debe cobrarles. Si quiere el camarero puede abrir cuenta a fiar a un parroquiano, pero si éste no paga, el camarero tiene que responder por la cuenta. En nuestra comedia el camarero ha abierto cuenta a Carlos, o ha quedado a responder por él.

(Recomiendo el párrafo anterior a los lectores como uno de los más chistosos que he leído en mi vida).

*viaducto*, antiguamente se suicidaban en este viaducto los desgraciados.

*tiró el báculo*, arrojó la muleta.

*sorde*, uno que puedo oír.

*Villalba*, pueblecito a pocas millas de Madrid donde la línea ferrea de Segovia se separa de la de Madrid.

*qué atrocidad*, qué cosa horrible.

*consume*, Subjuntivo potential.

*todo se lo habla*, habla todo el tiempo.

*vamos*, Presente subjuntivo del verbo ir.

*a los pies de Vd.*, frase que se usa entre señores por respeto.

*compofesor*, persona que ejerce una profesion al mismo tiempo que otra persona.

*honorarios*, sueldo, *stipendio*.

*No estoy yo en caja*, no estoy yo en bueno estado de salud, no estoy yo en vida ordenda.

*trucha*, mujer muy astuta, "Zorra"

Ajajá, D. Dolores está riendo.

*enhoramala*, Expresión que se emplea para denotar disgusto. Significa maldición.

He anotado sólo las que más se distinguen entre muchas otras, sin entrar en los acentos, división de sílabas y errores de imprenta de los cuales podemos encontrar un número respetable.

Si tal indiferencia en el uso o interpretación de una lengua es siempre sensible, seguramente lo es mucho más tratándose de una obra como "Zaragüeta," tan extensamente leída en las instituciones de enseñanza secundaria y superior de los Estados Unidos.

University of Michigan.

R. H. BONILLA.

**Teatro de ensueño.** by G. Martínez Sierra. Edited with introduction, notes, exercises and vocabulary, by Aurelio M. Espinosa, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Spanish, Leland Stanford Junior University. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, 1917. xvii + 108 pp. \$.52.

The present text furnishes an admirable example of the sort of thing that should be edited for our schools and colleges. Spanish studies may now be said to have lived through their period of probation in our curricula and to have definitely established a place for themselves among the other worthy and recognized members of the family of modern languages. They are not now commonly conducted as a "side-line" by teachers primarily trained in other subjects. Similarly our Spanish texts are emerging from the stage of apprenticeship, during which they were, with a few notable exceptions, chosen and edited by excellent teachers — of French.

The last decade has seen a great change. Almost exactly ten years ago, the present writer was privileged to listen to an address by one of the country's really great Romance scholars, delivered to the assembled Romance teachers of an important middle-western state. In the course of the address, the



speaker ventured upon a prophesy. "I will predict," he said in substance, "that the modern languages, as taught in this section of the country, will, within twenty-five years, range in order of relative importance as follows: Spanish, French, German." To one acquainted with the situation at that time in the central states, this prediction seemed rash indeed. It has not to be sure, been realized, and perhaps it will not be, literally. But certainly there was real vision displayed in the utterance.

The text-books of the past twelve months show a decided trend toward Spanish-American writers and subjects. This is well, for there are arrears in this field to be made up. As in the case of other excellent, forward-looking movements, however, there is always the likelihood that the pendulum may swing too far with its first impetus. It is desirable to preserve a sense of proportion and a just appreciation of literary values.

In the first paragraph of Professor Espinosa's Introduction appears this sentence: "In all its manifestations Spanish literature is rapidly approaching a second golden age." This statement, optimistic and enthusiastic as it appears at first glance, may yet prove to be prophetic. It is probably true that contemporary literature in no other country is producing an output of so high a standard of excellence in the field of pure literature as that displayed in the work of the younger school of writers,—the *Generación de 1898*, in Spain. Recent translations published in this country indicate at least a possibility that the American reading public may presently begin to emerge from the state of absolute ignorance of Spanish culture which has hitherto characterized it, and that a day may soon come when it will no longer be possible to hear from the lips of cultivated persons the question: "But has Spain really a literature?"

Professor Espinosa presents a necessarily brief, but pleasant and suggestive sketch of most of the salient figures of recent Spanish literature, from which one misses the name of Valle-Inclán, whose ideal of beautiful, artistic prose is perhaps more nearly approached by Martínez Sierra than by any other.

Then follows an admirable little appreciation of the author's work as a whole. In this, as the preface seems to hint, the editor may have enjoyed some assistance from Martínez Sierra himself. This may account for the fact that no mention is made of the story,—which may, moreover, be a libel that his works owe something to the collaboration of his gifted wife.

Whether Martínez Sierra be an inspired poet or not (p. XIII) is to some extent a matter of opinion. Clarín has said somewhere that "*hacia prosa cuando escribía en verso y vice versa*." There can be no two opinions as to the poetic nature of his prose style, as the present plays are sufficient to demonstrate. His ideas are beautiful rather than profound. Sentiment, which he says should dominate in a work of literature, is with him generally somewhat studied.

Graceful and beautiful, the three plays do credit to the taste of the editor. Certain trifling infelicities of detail are noted below:

p. XIII, 4th paragraph, last line, for *true* read *truly*, or omit the comma after *Spanish*.

p. 3, note to l. 7, "In the fields the yellow-gray stubble appears everywhere," is a somewhat weak rendering of *En los campos pardean los rastrojos*. Perhaps the simplest possible translation, "In the fields the stubble shows brown," would do as well.

p. 11, l. 17 and note, for *que* read *qué*.

p. 12, l. 5, for *ahullan* read *aullan*.

p. 12, note to line 8, *llorando a muerto* is more than "weeping mournfully." The expression is evidently a more poetic and figurative equivalent for *tocar a muerto*, to toll for the dead.

p. 22, note to l. 16, the expression *la reina que dices* can hardly be said to be archaic, at least in colloquial language. It is still heard daily in the speech of Spaniards of all social classes (for another example see p. 53, l. 16).

p. 27, l. 18, *¿Dónde es su reino?* This colloquialism, although, like the preceding, often heard, is, unlike it, grammatically incorrect. The student's attention should be called to the circumstances.

p. 30, note to l. 16, *Que se han secado*; the translation, "Which have withered," is not a happy one applied to brooks. "Which have dried up," would be more natural.

p. 55, note to l. 11 is unnecessary, even slightly misleading; *como a las pastoras*, etc. is connected with *Un rey* (a form of *querer* being understood), not, as the note indicates, with *alguien*. The king who loves a shepherdess is a commonplace of "fairy-stories."

p. 58, note to l. 20, *quiso*; here, as often, the past absolute of *querer* is best translated "tried." The *pudo* of the next line further bears out this translation.

p. 64, note to l. 20, *jugamos* would best be translated "we shall play," the present tense used for the future.

p. 83, s.v. *agosto*, the translation "harvest" is needed for the rendering of p. 32, l. 6.

p. 88, *cuneta* is misplaced.

p. 92, s.v. *felpudo*, the translation "plushy rushes" which would result from applying the vocabulary equivalents to *juncos felpudos* (p. 31, l. 4), is likely to cause a smile in class. "Velvety" would be innocuous.

p. 96, s.v. *linde*. The vocabulary gives the gender of this word as masculine. It is common, but it appears in the text (p. 48, l. 6) as a feminine.

p. 96, s.v. *lino*. The translation "flax" is needed for p. 8, ll. 6 and 14.

p. 100, s.v. *placa*. The equivalent given, that of "star," fits very badly into the sentence, *el cielo, placa de azul esmalte, está bañado en sol* (p. 30, l. 3), which seems to be the only case in which the word occurs. The meaning is "plaque."

p. 102, s. v. *ramo*, the translation "clump" or "bunch" is needed for p. 60, l. 28.

With the exceptions noted the numerous translations given in the notes are for the most part notably happy, and accomplish the very difficult task of giving the spirit, in some cases quite subtle and hard to render, of the original. The editor has usually chosen the simple and natural phrase, e.g., p. 47, note

to 1.26, *el azul caldeado del aire se enfria en gris*, "the deep, warm blue of the sky gradually cools to gray;" p. 61, l. 15, *y se nos hizo de noche en el campo*, "and night came upon us in the country," etc.

A series of sixteen exercises for translation into Spanish, based upon the text, will doubtless be of service to many teachers.

For classes composed of students mature enough to appreciate the beauty of its poetical prose, this little book will prove one of the most welcome of recent additions to our store of material.

University of Kansas.

ARTHUR L. OWEN.

## NOTES AND NEWS

### THE NEW YORK STATE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION

#### PROGRAM OF THE TENTH ANNUAL MEETING

November 26-27, 1918, at Albany

President—J. B. E. Jones, DeWitt Clinton High School, New York.

Secretary—Arthur G. Host, Troy High School.

Sessions will begin and topics will be taken up at the times indicated. Prompt attendance is therefore essential.

#### TUESDAY MORNING, NOVEMBER 26

- 9:30 Minutes, Appointment of Committees.
- 9:40 Reports of President and Secretary.
- 9:45 Report of Committee on Syllabus, Dr. William R. Price.
- 9:50 Report of Committee on Texts, Professor John P. Hoskins, Princeton University.
- 9:55 Report on Journal, Professor A. Busse, Hunter College.
- 10:00 "Class Room French and the War," Professor William Milwitzky, Barringer High School, Newark, N. J., Director of French at Camp Merritt, N. J.
- Discussion led by Dr. James Sullivan, State Historian.
- "The Future of German Instruction in America," Professor Calvin Thomas, Columbia University.
- Discussion led by Dr. Charles F. Wheelock, State Education Department.
- "Handicaps in the Teaching of Spanish—How to Overcome Them," Professor Edith Fahnestock, Vassar College.
- Discussion led by Professor R. H. Keniston, Cornell University.
- General Discussion. Speakers limited to five minutes.
- 12:30 Adjournment for Luncheon.

## TUESDAY AFTERNOON

- 2:00 "The War and the Modern Languages," President Alexander Meiklejohn, Amherst College.  
Discussion.  
"The Outlook for Modern Language Instruction after the War," Professor David Snedden, Teachers College, Columbia University.  
Discussion.  
"Motive and Method in Modern Language Teaching—A Friendly Critique," Dean Thomas M. Balliet, New York University.  
Discussion.  
General Discussion. Speakers limited to five minutes.
- 4:30 Round Tables for French, German, and Spanish.  
French Round Table, Professor Charles W. Cabeen, Syracuse University, Leader. "Results of a Questionnaire to Teachers of French," Dr. William R. Price, State Education Department.  
German Round Table, Professor Robert H. Fife, Jr., Wesleyan University, Leader. "Critique of Regents Examinations," Miss Caroline Kreykenbohm, Mount Vernon High School.  
Spanish Round Table, Miss Sara C. Knox, State Education Department, Leader. "Aids to the Teacher of Spanish," Professors Louis A. Loiseaux, Barnard College; R. H. Keniston, Cornell University; Jesse F. Stinard, State College for Teachers.
- 6:30 Get-Together Dinner. Toasts by Professor Charles A. Downer, of the College of the City of New York, and President of the Alliance Française; Professor Marshall L. Perrin, of Boston University; Professor Lillian L. Ströbe, of Vassar College.

## WEDNESDAY MORNING, NOVEMBER 27

- 9:00 "The Use of Phonetic Symbols in Teaching French Pronunciation," Professor Anna Woods Ballard, Teachers College, Columbia University.  
Discussion led by Dr. William R. Price, State Education Department.  
"American Summer Schools as a Substitute for Study in Europe," Professor Lillian L. Ströbe, Vassar College.  
Discussion led by Professor Robert W. Moore, Colgate University.  
General Discussion. Speakers limited to five minutes.
- 10:30 Report of Committee on Nominations. Election of Officers for 1918-1919.
- 10:35 Report of Committee on Resolutions.
- 10:40 Unfinished Business.
- 11:00 Adjournment.

Resolution of the War Time Conference of Modern Language Teachers, adopted at the meeting of the National Educational Association, July 3, 1918.

WHEREAS, as we recognize the teaching of the American national ideals of Liberty, Democracy and Humanity to be a first and paramount duty of every instructor in foreign languages and whereas, the part played by text books is of the greatest importance in its influence on school and college youth, therefore be it,

*Resolved;* (1) That as teachers of the foreign modern languages we pledge ourselves to refrain from the use of any book whether of grammatical method, literary content or critical character which in its subject matter or critical or illustrative apparatus tends to weaken in the minds of our youth the American ideals of Liberty, Democracy and Humanity;

(2) That in the preparation for publication of critical or illustrative works of whatever character and in the edition of foreign language texts we pledge ourselves to emphasize in every way possible these national ideals;

(3) That the consideration of foreign language texts from this standpoint be referred to the joint committee on texts of the FEDERATION OF MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHER'S ASSOCIATIONS and the ASSOCIATION OF MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS OF THE CENTRAL WEST AND SOUTH in order that they may keep this consideration in mind in the preparation of lists of texts;

(4) That copies of this resolution be sent to the various associations bearing responsibility in this matter, viz. THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA, THE ASSOCIATION OF MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS OF THE CENTRAL WEST AND SOUTH, and the constituent associations of the FEDERATION OF MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS and the SPANISH TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION as well as to the EMERGENCY COUNCIL ON EDUCATION of the NATIONAL COUNCIL OF DEFENSE, and that they be published in the MODERN LANGUAGE JOURNAL, HISPANIA, and as many other journals of Modern Language teachers as possible.

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